Design of an On-Chip Random Number Generator using Metastability

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Abstract

This paper shows that the internal noise in a bistable exhibits a Gaussian distribution, and is close to the value expected from thermal agitation. We describe a random number generator based on this property that is capable of on chip integration, and is a primary source of high entropy data at 100MHz. The device is held close to metastability by a feedback loop, and is therefore relatively insensitive to circuit asymmetries and drift. Measurements of post-processed data from this source also show a relatively high bit rate and sequences of $2^{23}$ bits are shown to pass stringent tests for randomness.

1. Introduction

Secure encryption is dependant on sources of truly random numbers for generating keys, and there is a need for an on chip random number generator to achieve adequate security, for example, on a smart card. Pseudo random deterministic processes are vulnerable to attack, because the entropy of the key can never exceed that of the seed state, and the space that needs to be searched is reduced as a result. Here the entropy of a $k$ bit key is given by: $H = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \log_2 p_i$, where $p_i$ is the probability of state $i$ out of $n$ states. Thus if all $2^k$ possible states are equally likely, the information cannot be represented by a sequence shorter than $k$ bits, and $H = k$ [1].

Most true hardware random number generators depend primarily on a source of thermal noise, which is then post-processed to reduce the effects of deterministic internal and external influences such as power supply variations, DC bias, and electromagnetic fields [2]. While full integration on to silicon reduces vulnerability to attack, attack methods can include the use of physical, or high power RF interference to bias the distribution of numbers, thus random number generators also require on-chip hardware to continuously monitor the quality of the output and fast enough production of random bits to permit analysis in real time.

Any on-chip source of entropy, such as random motion of charge carriers must also be largely dependent on unpredictable effects, and compatible with i.c. technology. Mechanisms such as nuclear decay are not appropriate, and deterministic internal effects such as bias, and bit-to-bit correlations may reduce the effective entropy, requiring post-processing of large numbers of bits. It is therefore desirable to start with a high bit rate output device.

A method that is both simple to integrate, and high bandwidth, is the use of a bistable device in metastability. The idea that choice between two equally desirable outcomes may be determined by random processes has been known for centuries [3]. More recently the final state of bistable circuits set close to the metastable point has been shown to be affected by noise.[4],[5]. If the origin of the noise is thermal motion, then its random nature suggests that repeatedly clocking a bistable device forced into metastability will produce a succession of binary bits with little correlation between any pair in the sequence. There are several ways in which this effect could be used to produce random bits.

- Hold the bistable close to metastability, and then allow it to resolve, producing a high or a low level according to the polarity of the internal noise at the time of release [8]. The problem here is how to ensure that offset of the initial bias point is much smaller than the noise level.
- Use two independent oscillators, for clock and data, and record only outputs for which metastability lasts much longer than the normal response time (typically 10-15τ, where τ is the time constant of the device) This ensures that the start point bias was much less than noise, but reduces the output rate to only a few bits per second. This rate can be slightly improved by:
- Measuring the time between clock and resolved output, again with two independent oscillator inputs. The probability of the bistable remaining in metastability decreases exponentially with observed output time, so
the variation in time value bits will not be large, leading to low added entropy. There are also difficulties in that the two oscillators are in close proximity, and may become coupled.

For these reasons we have chosen to investigate the first method. Thermal noise, even in sub-micron devices, is relatively small, typically represented by RMS voltage levels of 1mV or less. To ensure that the output is random, any deterministic signals contributing to the input, such as the effects of the previous output, or drift, must be reduced to a level much lower than 1mV. Bellido, [8], relies only on layout symmetry to achieve low offset, but our measurements suggest this is insufficient to achieve an unbiased output stream.

In this paper, Section 2 presents a fast bistable comparator which we call an R-Flop, and gives the results of internal noise and offset measurement. Section 3, shows how feedback is used to overcome offset and drift, and presents the characteristics of the resulting random bit stream. Simple techniques for removing any remaining lack of randomness in the output to a level where it passes the most stringent tests, and monitoring imperfections are given in Section 4.

2. Noise

In order to measure the internal noise in a bistable circuit we designed the R-Flop shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1 R-Flop circuit](image1)

This circuit has an analog input stage that drives the bistable with a small current difference, so that we can observe the proportion of outputs that go high or low when the bistable is clocked, with very small initial offset levels. Using DC inputs to give very small inputs to the latch avoids the jitter problems of maintaining the very precise timing between data and clock required to measure noise effects, since input voltage variations can be held to well within 1mV at the low frequencies used to provide the offset. Our circuit has a differential preamplifier input, followed by a bistable latch, and an SEM scan of the device shown in Figure 2.

![Figure 2 SEM of circuit](image2)

The device was fabricated using an AMS 0.6μ process, and we measured the noise in the bistable when it was metastable by continuously clocking the device, while observing the proportion of outputs with $V_f$ high as the input was varied. When $V+$ is very close to $V-$ the bistable output is determined mainly by thermal noise on the B nodes, since the RMS noise voltage on these nodes is greater than the offset due to the input. Under these circumstances the random nature of the output can be clearly observed, and as the input voltage changes from negative through zero to positive the proportion of $V_f$ high outputs goes from zero to 100%. Plotting the change in this proportion for a given input change against the actual input gives the graph of Figure 3, where the points measured are compared with a Gaussian curve with an equivalent RMS noise value of 1.7mV at the input. We measured the effective gain of the preamplifier by using a SPICE model to determine the input ($V+ - V-$) that would be needed to overcome an initial offset of 1mV in the bistable latch. The results of these measurements show that 3 mV at the input is equivalent to 4.55 mV between nodes $A_0$ and $A_1$, and 1 mV between nodes $B_1$ and $B_0$.

![Figure 3 Probability of $V_f$ high](image3)

Thermal fluctuations in an FET give rise to drain current noise and gate noise. Van der Ziel [7], gives drain current noise as $i_{nd}^2 = 4kT\gamma g_{d0}\Delta f$, where $g_{d0}$ is the drain-source conductance, and the parameter $\gamma$ has
a value typically between 2 and 3. The equivalent gate noise voltage is approximately 
\[ e_n^2 = \frac{4kT\delta}{g_{do}} \]
where \( \delta \) is typically 5-6. Noise at nodes B_1 and B_2 has a bandwidth limited by the capacitance, C, to \( g_{dd}/4C \), and is in the range 0.4 mV to 0.5 mV for our process, depending on the values of \( \gamma \) and \( \delta \). Between nodes B_1 and B_2 this is \( \sqrt{2} \) greater, or between 0.55 mV and 0.7 mV. Similarly the noise between A_1 and A_2 is about 1 mV, but this only makes a small contribution towards the noise at B, because the gain from A to B was 1/(4,55) in the circuits we measured. Total thermal noise should be therefore equivalent to between 1.65mV and 2.1mV at the input. Our measurement of approximately 1.7mV RMS corresponds to about 0.6mV total between B_1 and B_2, and is in the expected range. Consequently we are confident that the noise is largely thermal in origin.

### 3. Random number generator

In order to produce a random bit stream, it is necessary to ensure that the bistable device is initially held at the metastable point, and also that variations in bias are much less than the 0.5mV noise voltage. Our samples showed typical input offset voltages of around 10mV, and this could be as much as 50mV, an order of magnitude greater than the effective noise level at the input. Between samples, and with power supply change, this offset value varies considerably, and therefore the random number generator must have some means of adjusting the bias. We provided this with a negative feedback loop, which averages the output voltage to ensure that the output approximates to 50% of high and 50% of low values. This is achieved by means of the switched capacitor network in Figure 4, in which the output bit stream charges a 0.01pF capacitance on each half of the clock cycle, and shares charge with a 100pF capacitance on the other half.

![Figure 4 Random number generator](image)

An effective capacitance of 100pF is produced by using the Miller effect to multiply a 3pF capacitor by the gain of an inverter. Here each 3.3V output high causes an increase in voltage of 0.17mV, and each output low of 0V causes a similar decrease. This change is still quite large when compared with 1.7mV, so we lower the gain of the circuit shown in Figure 1, by splitting the input stage tail current transistor and inserting a resistor. This increases effective noise range at the input to about 12mV, so that the feedback step size of 0.17mV is less than 2% of the noise. The feedback causes some colouring of the output, since a high output causes the input to be slightly biased in favour of following lows, and a low output biases in favour of following highs. Other causes of reduction in the entropy of the output are DC bias and parasitic feedback of the output to the inputs via power supplies or other coupling. We measured the correlation of highs and lows in the output by feeding it into a shift register and XORing the output of each stage in the shift register with the first. Averaged over a sufficiently long output sequence, each XOR output should produce a value close to 50% high and 50% low. If the ratio of clock frequency to integration time constant is too low, the first few XOR outputs show inverse correlation, and in the case of a 1000:1 capacitor ratio we observed that 61% of outputs were the opposite of the previous value rather than 50%.

### 4. Noise quality

The XOR circuits are effectively performing an autocorrelation on the output bit stream in real time, and can be used to monitor the quality of the output. If the XOR outputs are each counted over a suitable number of clock periods, it is possible to determine whether the number of high values is significantly different from 50%, and by implication whether the output is sufficiently random over that number of bits. At a clock rate of 100MHz, a sample of 1000 bits can be checked every 10 \( \mu \)s, and if the quality is insufficient, perhaps because of attack, this can be indicated.

The randomness in the output of our circuit is affected by residual error in the feedback loop, which can give a small DC bias to the output, and by the correlation between successive bits discussed in the previous section. Inevitably other systematic noise may also affect the sensitive input of the R-Flop, but because the bit rate of our device can be very high, it is possible to reduce these effects by XORing two strings, from similar circuits, and using the resulting string as the output, or alternatively taking the parity of a pair of successive bits. If the two strings are independent, his ‘whitening’ process has the effect of reducing a probability of \((0.5 + x)\) in the correlation between any two bits to \((0.5 + 2x^2)\). Thus 61% of inverse correlation
becomes 52.4%. N inputs to the XOR process give a 
0.5(1 + (2x)^N). If the bits are from only one string the 
whitening process relies on the fact that correlation 
reduces as the bits are more widely spaced, and larger 
values of N must be used to get the same effect, but it is 
trivially implemented by counting the number of 1’s in 
the output over N clock periods. While this method 
reduces the bit rate in order to increase the entropy, it is 
superior to methods which maintain the bit rate by 
using a linear feedback shift register (LFSR) [8]. For 
these methods, because a knowledge of the feedback 
paths and the output enables the input to be 
reconstructed, entropy is not increased in the output.

We tested the output of our circuit with a discrete-
component averaging network, storing 2^23 bits of the 
post processed files on a PC where they could be 
analysed for randomness. The effectiveness of the 
parity method as measured by the variance of 8 bit 
messages is shown in Figure 5

As the number of bits, N, increases the variance 
reduces, and the inverse correlation between successive 
bits can be seen in the difference between odd and even 
values of N. The entropy ratio H/k for N=5, 25, and 
100 is 0.9808, 0.99999 and 1.0 respectively. Both of 
these last two files pass overlapping m-tuple tests, 
known as the ‘Monkey Test’ [9], for up to 16 bits. 
These tests are more stringent than the empirical tests of 
Knuth. [10].

5. Conclusions

We have shown that it is possible to use the internal 
oise of a bistable device in metastability to generate a 
stream of bits with a high level of randomness, and a 
frequency of over 100MHz. In order to achieve high 
entropy in the output, it is essential to use feedback to 
overcome offset and drift

Because of internal correlations this bit stream has 
an entropy ratio of only about 0.85, but post processing 
that reduces the bit rate by a factor of 50, can improve it 
to the level where it is indistinguishable from a true 
random source. The techniques used are simpler than 
an LFSR, and increase entropy at the expense of bit 
rate. The LFSR method does not increase entropy 
unless the bit rate is also reduced. All the techniques 
described are relatively simple to implement of a single 
chip, and the high bit rate ensures that, if necessary, real 
time on-chip monitoring of the quality of the output 
could be carried out.

6. References

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